WFP EVALUATION

Impact Evaluation of Cash-Based Transfers on Food Security and Gender Equality in El Salvador

WFP World Food Programme

SAVING LIVES CHANGING LIVES

i2i DIME TRANSFORM DEVELOPMENT

Impact Evaluation Baseline Report

OFFICE OF EVALUATION

August 2022

Disclaimer

The opinions expressed are those of the evaluation team, and do not necessarily reflect those of the World Food Programme (WFP) or the World Bank. Responsibility for the opinions expressed in this report rests solely with the authors. Publication of this document does not imply endorsement by WFP or the World Bank of the opinions expressed.

The designations employed and the presentation of material in the maps do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of WFP concerning the legal or constitutional status of any country, territory or sea area, or concerning the delimitation of frontiers.

Key personnel for the evaluation

WFP OFFICE OF EVALUATION

Director of Evaluation	Andrea Cook
Evaluation Officer	Jonas Heirman
Evaluation Officer	Felipe Dunsch

THE WORLD BANK DEVELOPMENT IMPACT EVALUATION (DIME) DEPARTMENT

Principal Investigator	Erin Kelly
Principal Investigator	Lelys Dinarte
Principal Investigator	Gregory Lane
Research Analyst	Tanay Balantrapu
Research Analyst	Marc-Andrea Fiorina
Field Coordinator	Sylvia Maria Cesar
Field Coordinator	Anna Subirana i Bofill
Field Coordinator	Miguel Paniagua Melendez

Contents

List of figures

List of Tables

Overview

This report presents data from the El Salvador impact evaluation baseline survey. It describes the pre-programme baseline situation, looking at primary outcomes as well as other variables of interest. The report begins by reviewing the methodology of the evaluation, its design and randomization strategy (see Section 2). It then describes the different data sources and tools that were used to collect the baseline data (see Section 3) and presents statistics that characterize the survey respondents, including a break-out by treatment group (see Section 4). Lastly, the report outlines key challenges and conclusions (see Section 5) from this phase of the impact evaluation.

PROGRAMME SUMMARY

The El Salvador impact evaluation aims to estimate the impacts of Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) programming targeting women on gender equality, household decision making, and women's social and economic empowerment.

The core functions of FFA include, simultaneously, the direct provision of food or cash-based transfers to meet the consumption needs of the most vulnerable (i.e., short-term access to food) as well as the construction/development of household and community assets that reduce the risk of disaster, strengthen livelihoods and build resilience over time.

The El Salvador impact evaluation focuses on 75 communities across 13 municipalities for a total of 1,500 households.

IMPACT EVALUATION SUMMARY

The El Salvador impact evaluation belongs to the Cash-Based Transfers and Gender (CBT&G) impact evaluation window – developed by WFP's Office of Evaluation (OEV) in partnership with WFP's Cash-Based Transfers (CBT) programme teams and Gender Office (GEN), as well as the World Bank's Development Impact Evaluation (DIME) department. This window coordinates a portfolio of impact evaluations to measure the impacts of cash transfers on gender equality and women empowerment (GEWE) outcomes across a series of WFP country programmes.

The hypothesis underlying this window is that providing women with opportunities to work outside the household will enhance their agency as well as increase their control over financial resources, which in turn leads to expanded social and economic empowerment.

In this impact evaluation, the expected outcomes of the FFA intervention are increasing women's earnings and supporting them to alter time use. The theory of change conjects that these then impact perceptions of gender norms, attitudes, agency, consumption patterns and well-being.

IMPACT EVALUATION QUESTIONS

The main impact evaluation questions are:

1. What is the impact of women's participation in FFA (working outside the household and receiving cash in return) on their social and economic empowerment?

2. What is the impact of an unconditional cash transfer to the household on women's social and economic empowerment, as well as on household income and welfare?

The impact evaluation also poses the following secondary questions:

1. Does FFA affect the probability and/or reasons for respondents' migration?

2. Are there heterogeneous impacts of the transfer based on respondents' exposure to community violence?

3. Does participation in FFA affect key food security outcomes of interest?

BASELINE SURVEY PROCESS

We use a clustered, randomized design for estimating credible and unbiased treatment effects of FFA. To begin, the WFP Country Office (CO) selected 13 municipalities. Within each municipality, five to six communities were selected for inclusion using the criteria that they did not expect a WFP transfer for the year 2021; they ranked "Priority" 1 or 2 in the CO's strategy (based on food insecurity, poverty and vulnerability due to COVID-19 and tropical storms, with rank 1 being the most food insecure); and there was an even distribution of men and women within the communities.

Next, the 75 communities were randomly assigned into either one of two treatment groups or the control group:

- Treatment Group 1: Beneficiaries receive a conditional cash transfer (USD 300) disbursed over two months, provided they work on an asset – where the primary female decision maker is registered to receive the transfer and work on the asset.
- Treatment Group 2: Beneficiaries receive an unconditional cash transfer (USD 300) disbursed over two months – where the primary male decision maker is registered to receive the unconditional transfer.
- Control Group: Beneficiaries receive a USD 300 lump sum unconditional cash transfer after the endline surveys are completed.

In a third step, WFP worked with local community leaders and government officials to identify 20 of the most vulnerable households within each community for a total sample size of 1,500 households.

The baseline multi-module household survey was administered between February and March 2021 to both male and female heads of household. The survey was reviewed by the WFP CO and extensively piloted with local communities to ensure that questions were fully relevant to the context. The survey took approximately two hours. Data collection was conducted using Android tablets running SurveyCTO data collection software.

KEY INSIGHTS

This descriptive baseline analysis highlights the *potential* of FFA to generate sustained impacts on households' livelihoods and well-being. Targeted households are highly vulnerable. Real annual household consumption was USD 4,344 (just USD 3 per capita per day). Wage labour represents 98 percent of household income, and 83 percent of households reported relying on emergency or crisis coping strategies. Additionally, around 20 percent of household heads have reported ever moving to another department or municipality within El Salvador, either to look for better economic or educational opportunities or family reunification. Reliable sources of income from public works and diversified livelihoods from asset creation can therefore meaningfully increase household resilience.

Intra-household gender inequality is substantial. Women heads of household frequently reported intimate partner violence and high rates of depression. In addition, women have less agency over their time use and earn 15 percent of what male heads of household earn. These correlations may understate the importance of interventions that increase women's earnings to reduce intra-household gender inequality – more vulnerable households appear to rely more on wage income from women heads of household, suggesting interventions to reduce household vulnerability and increase women's agency are complementary.

Lastly, basic balance checks are consistent with successful implementation of the cross-community randomization, sampling and the baseline survey. This successful implementation is necessary to ensure that the impact evaluation will deliver rigorous estimates of the short-run and medium-run impacts of unconditional cash-based transfers for men and women's FFA on a broad range of outcomes associated with resilience, women's economic empowerment and household well-being.

Technical Report

1. Introduction

1. Gender inequality in access to the labour market is pervasive, particularly in developing countries, and its potential welfare implications are concerning (Jayachandran, 2015). In El Salvador, only 50 percent of women participate in the labour market, in contrast to 80 percent of men (World Bank, 2020). Economic development, gender equality in labour market opportunities and gender equality in autonomy are all strongly linked, but causality is still unclear.

2. The World Food Programme's (WFP) Office of Evaluation (OEV), Cash-based Transfers (CBT) Division and Gender Office partnered with the World Bank's Development Impact Evaluation (DIME) department to create the "Cash-Based Transfers (CBT) and Gender" Impact Evaluation (IE) window.

3. **CBT & Gender Impact Evaluation window:** The CBT and Gender window aims to understand the impact of CBT interventions targeting women on gender equality and women's empowerment, as well as food and nutrition outcomes. The first round of impact evaluations selected for this window aims to estimate the impacts of increasing women's participation in work outside the household, as a condition of receiving cash-based transfers, and directly receiving a wage (the cash-based transfers) on their social and economic empowerment. The El Salvador impact evaluation aims to estimate the impacts of Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) programming targeting women on gender equality, household decision making, and women's social and economic empowerment. The expected outcomes of the intervention are increasing women's earnings and supporting them to alter time use. The theory of change conjects that these then (in the medium term) impact perceptions of gender norms, attitudes, agency, consumption patterns and well-being (physical, social and psychological).

4. The main impact evaluation questions are as follows.

1. What is the impact of women's participation in FFA (working outside the household and receiving cash in return) on their social and economic empowerment?
2. What is the impact of an unconditional cash transfer to the household on women's social and economic empowerment, as well as on household income and welfare?

The impact evaluation poses the following secondary questions:

1. Does FFA affect the probability and/or reasons for respondents' migration?
2. Are there heterogeneous impacts of the transfer based on respondents' exposure to community violence?
3. Does participation in FFA affect key food security outcomes of interest?

5. Impact evaluation results will feed into the design of upcoming FFA programming in El Salvador and can inform the next Country Strategic Plan (CSP) (2022–2026), which strongly focuses on gender and strengthening institutions and filling gaps in the coverage of government food security and nutrition programmes, including support to drought response (DIME-OEV, 2021). The CSP reaffirms WFP's commitment to facilitating vulnerable households' access to effective, productive and nutrition-sensitive social protection; and targeting populations and communities in the most food-insecure areas. The strategy also emphasizes WFP's commitment to prioritizing the protection of women in all its activities according to its regional gender strategy and the CO's gender action plan. Special attention will be given to the gender gap in incomes and women's protection needs.

6. The impact evaluation is designed as a Randomized Control Trial (RCT), including a baseline survey before the intervention, a midline survey during the intervention, and an endline survey after the intervention.

7. This report presents data from the baseline survey to inform about the pre-programme situation while looking at primary outcomes as well as other variables of interest. The report begins by reviewing the methodology of the evaluation, its design and randomization strategy (see Section 2). It then describes the different data sources and tools that were used to collect the baseline data (see Section 3) and presents statistics to describe the characteristics of survey respondents, including a break-out by treatment group (see Section 4). Lastly, the report outlines key challenges and conclusions (see Section 5) from this phase of the impact evaluation. Please refer to the impact evaluation's inception report for further insights and details on the set-up and the design (DIME-OEV, 2021).

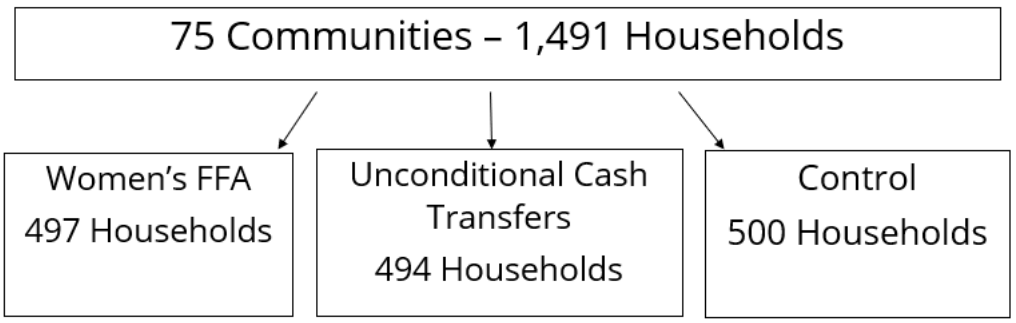
2. Randomization Strategy

8. To identify the causal impacts of the treatment arms, the impact evaluation employs a clustered Randomized Control Trial (RCT) design (presented in detail in the inception report). The clustered RCT approach follows from the programme's implementation modality of intervening at the community level, which would not have allowed for household-level randomization. To start, the WFP Country Office (CO) selected 13 municipalities. Within each municipality, five to six communities were selected for inclusion in the study using the following criteria:

- They did not expect a WFP transfer in the year 2022.
- They rank "Priority" 1 or 2 in the CO's strategy. The priority ranking is devised based on food insecurity, poverty and vulnerability due to COVID-19 and tropical storms, with rank 1 being the most food insecure.
- There is an even distribution of men and women within the communities.

9. In a second step, the 75 communities were randomly assigned into either one of the two treatment groups or the control group (see Figure 1), producing a clustered randomized design.

Figure 1: Randomization design of Food Assistance for Assets (FFA) programme



10. Details of the two treatment arms and control group are as follows:

- Treatment 1: Beneficiaries in this treatment group receive a conditional cash transfer (USD 300) disbursed over two months, provided they work on an asset – where the primary female decision maker is registered to receive the transfer and work on the asset. The CO estimates that USD 100 a month is the amount required to fill any existing food expenditure gaps.
- Treatment 2: Beneficiaries in this treatment group receive an unconditional cash transfer (USD 300) disbursed over two months – where the primary male decision maker is registered to receive the unconditional transfer. Please note that the unconditional cash transfer was provided to men because they work during the day and therefore lower take-up (differential attrition) for any asset-related activities was expected (which is a slight deviation from the "window" design where the first treatment arm is a "business as usual" FFA intervention).

- Control Group: Beneficiaries in the control group receive a USD 300 lump sum unconditional cash transfer after the endline surveys are completed.

11. A sufficient sample size in an impact evaluation assures that individual characteristics balance across treatment and control groups, so that these groups are the same on average and are representative for the population they were drawn from. The CO's budget and implementation capacities allow for the impact evaluation to be conducted in 75 communities (with ca. 20 households in each community). For the gender-focused component, we found using the transfer size, number of communities and other basic assumptions required to compute power, we needed 1,491 households in our sample for a minimum detectable effect size on women's consumption. Full details of the evaluation design, including the evaluation's hypotheses, power calculations and programme theory of change, can be found in the Impact Evaluation Inception Report.

12. In a third step, in each community, WFP worked with local community leaders and government officials to identify 20 of the most vulnerable households within each community for a total sample size of 1,500 households. A feature of the clustered randomized controlled trial design is that all selected beneficiary households within a community will receive the same treatment to avoid any "spillover" concerns that might arise from a within community household randomization approach. The household identification process in all 75 communities will be the same regardless of "treatment" assignment to avoid any biases.

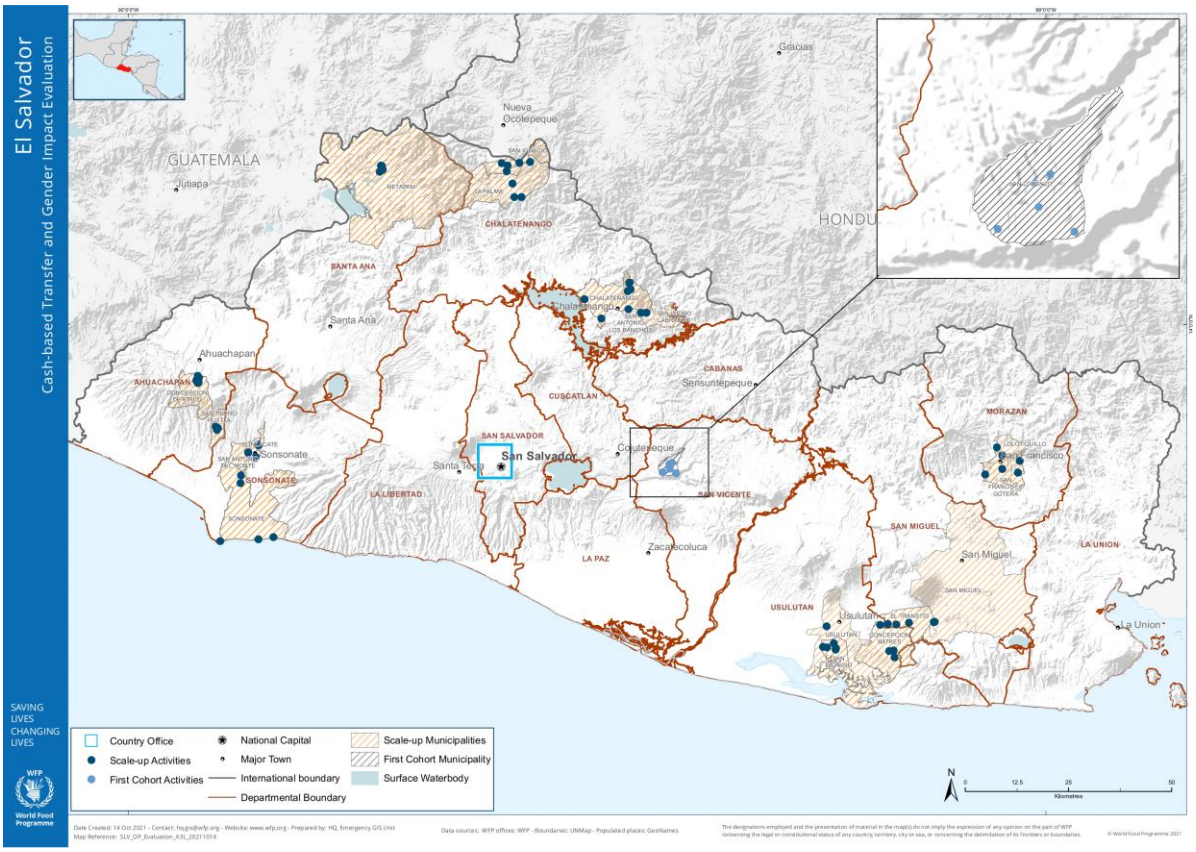
2.1. SITE MAPPING

13. The geographical coverage of the survey comprises the following 13 districts: Chalatenango, Concepción Batres, Concepción De Ataco, El Tránsito, La Palma, Metapán, San Antonio Del Monte, San Dionisio, San Francisco Gotera, San Ignacio, San Pedro Puxtla, Sonsonate and Sonzacate. The selected sites are all rural communities that mostly rely on wages and agriculture for their income. The communities are also characterized by migration to other municipalities and crime in the form of violence in the community. We shall discuss the social and economic status of the sample households in the sections on demographics (see Section 4.2.1) and earnings (see Section 4.2.5) when we discuss the results from the survey.

Table 1: Number of households by district

District	No. of Households
Chalatenango	160
Concepción Batres	115
Concepción De Ataco	114
El Tránsito	115
La Palma	67
Metapán	101
San Antonio Del Monte	115
San Dionisio	96
San Francisco Gotera	106
San Ignacio	65
San Pedro Puxtla	107
Sonsonate	118
Sonzacate	93

Figure 2: Map of the project sites



3. Data Source and Tools

14. Baseline data was collected in February/March 2021 using a household survey covering outcomes of interest for the Cash-Based Transfers and Gender (CBT&G) impact evaluation window and project-specific indicators. The multiple module survey instrument was administered primarily to households with both male and female heads of household. Please refer to the inception report for a more detailed discussion of household inclusion criteria (DIME-OEV, 2021).

15. The baseline survey took place amid the COVID-19 pandemic, which undoubtedly negatively affected the food security and coping strategies of the communities surveyed. The findings should be interpreted in this context.

16. While specific outcomes are discussed in detail in section 4.2, the main outcome categories of interest for the impact evaluation are as follows:

Table 2: Indicators

Indicators
Food security
Coping strategies
Financial outcomes
Earnings
Consumption
Migration
Time use
Agency
Attitudes
Perception of norms
Psychological Well-being
Intimate partner violence
Crime

4. Descriptive Statistics and Balance

17. The baseline data describes the socioeconomic background of the respondents from the target population, as well as baseline data on intermediary and final outcomes of interest. As we are collecting data on both final outcomes as well as intermediary outcomes, we can expect to see some connections highlighting the potential mechanisms of impact. Such connections and their implications for future results will be discussed in the results section (see Section 4.2).

4.1 BALANCE OF OUTCOMES ACROSS TREATMENT GROUPS

18. As the assignment of the sample was randomized across three groups, and sampling for the baseline survey was conducted before the randomization, households across the three groups should be comparable on both observable and unobservable characteristics at the time of the baseline (this can be seen in the Figures 3 & 4. The randomization ensures that all differences observed at endline are attributable (as causal impacts) to the project.

19. Figures 3 and 4 together present a “balance table” comparing the mean values of the three groups for key outcomes of interest. Tests are conducted to identify any statistically significant differences between the groups. We find no differences significant at the 5 percent level. We will test the robustness of our results in midline and endline analyses, including controls for baseline earnings.

Figure 3: Baseline balance – 1

Variable	(1) Control N/[Clusters]	(1) Control Mean/SD	(2) Standard N/[Clusters]	(2) Standard Mean/SD	(3) Female Only N/[Clusters]	(3) Female Only Mean/SD	T-test Difference (1)-(2)	T-test Difference (1)-(3)	T-test Difference (2)-(3)
Food Consumption Score (0 to 112)	443	74.705	448	76.569	459	74.607	-1.864	0.099	1.962
	[25]	(31.300)	[25]	(25.507)	[25]	(36.372)			
Used a Livelihood Coping Mechanism	455	0.831	451	0.845	466	0.824	-0.014	0.007	0.021
	[25]	(0.450)	[25]	(0.361)	[25]	(0.462)			
Yearly Female HoH Earnings (2019 PPP USD)	464	349.116	457	392.703	470	507.280	-43.587	-158.164	-114.577
	[25]	(1518.748)	[25]	(1811.187)	[25]	(3833.930)			
Yearly Male HoH Earnings (2019 PPP USD)	464	2890.191	457	2221.565	470	2871.408	668.626	18.783	-649.843
	[25]	(9677.821)	[25]	(5442.068)	[25]	(9291.330)			
Predicted Consumption (2019 PPP USD)	452	5233.793	446	5490.143	455	4960.782	-256.350	273.011	529.361
	[25]	(5880.911)	[25]	(5863.633)	[25]	(8473.263)			
Time Spent Outside of Home (Hours / Day)	464	2.298	457	2.752	470	2.617	-0.454*	-0.319	0.135
	[25]	(3.310)	[25]	(4.173)	[25]	(4.651)			
Time Spent doing Self-Employed Work (Hours / Day)	464	0.160	457	0.161	470	0.208	-0.001	-0.048	-0.047
	[25]	(1.442)	[25]	(1.020)	[25]	(1.297)			
Time Spent Doing HH Agricultural Work (Hours / Day)	464	0.220	457	0.271	470	0.185	-0.051	0.035	0.086
	[25]	(0.959)	[25]	(1.098)	[25]	(0.777)			
Time Spent Doing Paid Work (Hours / Day)	464	0.568	457	0.470	470	0.711	0.098	-0.143	-0.241
	[25]	(2.538)	[25]	(1.935)	[25]	(2.559)			
Time Spent Doing Chores (Hours / Day)	464	7.118	457	6.825	470	7.047	0.294	0.071	-0.223
	[25]	(4.115)	[25]	(3.451)	[25]	(5.029)			
PHQ-9 Score (0 to 27)	454	3.771	450	3.862	466	3.661	-0.091	0.110	0.201
	[25]	(5.811)	[25]	(5.883)	[25]	(5.106)			
Life Satisfaction Score (5 to 35)	454	25.167	450	25.391	466	25.114	-0.224	0.054	0.277
	[25]	(6.517)	[25]	(5.573)	[25]	(6.524)			
Female HoH Suffered IPV Abuse	372	0.462	394	0.480	405	0.499	-0.017	-0.036	-0.019
	[25]	(0.556)	[25]	(0.600)	[25]	(0.613)			

Notes: The value displayed for t-tests are the differences in the means across the groups. Standard deviations are clustered at variable villageid. ***, **, and * indicate significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent critical level.

Figure 4: Baseline balance – 2

Variable	(1) Control N/[Clusters]	Mean/SD	(2) Standard N/[Clusters]	Mean/SD	(3) Female Only N/[Clusters]	Mean/SD	T-test Difference (1)-(2)	(1)-(3)	(2)-(3)
Agency over Men's Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	441 [25]	-0.688 (0.518)	437 [25]	-0.700 (0.401)	449 [25]	-0.700 (0.325)	0.012	0.012	-0.000
Agency over Women's Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	439 [25]	0.604 (0.513)	437 [25]	0.605 (0.365)	442 [25]	0.642 (0.410)	-0.001	-0.038	-0.037
Agency over Consumption (Index, -1 to 1)	428 [25]	0.276 (0.342)	425 [25]	0.247 (0.495)	434 [25]	0.269 (0.381)	0.029	0.007	-0.021
Women's Attitudes towards Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	452 [25]	-0.270 (0.296)	451 [25]	-0.274 (0.346)	461 [25]	-0.251 (0.340)	0.005	-0.019	-0.023
Men's Attitudes toward Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	412 [25]	-0.311 (0.349)	422 [25]	-0.338 (0.311)	407 [25]	-0.321 (0.279)	0.027	0.010	-0.017
Women's Attitudes towards Agency over Women's Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	440 [25]	0.647 (0.487)	440 [25]	0.628 (0.402)	446 [25]	0.673 (0.336)	0.019	-0.026	-0.045*
Men's Attitudes towards Agency over Women's Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	394 [25]	0.500 (0.400)	408 [25]	0.520 (0.363)	397 [25]	0.527 (0.387)	-0.020	-0.027	-0.007
Women's PoN towards Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	452 [25]	-0.406 (0.316)	451 [25]	-0.382 (0.471)	461 [25]	-0.413 (0.431)	-0.024	0.007	0.031
Men's PoN towards Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	411 [25]	-0.387 (0.445)	421 [25]	-0.424 (0.408)	407 [25]	-0.438 (0.401)	0.036	0.050*	0.014
Women's PoN towards Agency over Women's Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	452 [25]	0.419 (0.558)	450 [25]	0.409 (0.398)	461 [25]	0.408 (0.462)	0.010	0.011	0.000
Men's PoN towards Agency over Women's Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	410 [25]	0.393 (0.601)	422 [25]	0.409 (0.461)	407 [25]	0.461 (0.474)	-0.016	-0.068*	-0.052
Women's PoN of Attitudes towards Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	452 [25]	-0.341 (0.290)	451 [25]	-0.350 (0.334)	461 [25]	-0.359 (0.407)	0.009	0.018	0.009
Women's PoN of Attitudes towards Agency over Women's Time Use (Index, -1 to 1)	452 [25]	0.458 (0.618)	451 [25]	0.452 (0.442)	461 [25]	0.460 (0.470)	0.005	-0.003	-0.008

Notes: The value displayed for t-tests are the differences in the means across the groups. Standard deviations are clustered at variable villageid. ***, **, and * indicate significance at the 1, 5, and 10 percent critical level.

4.2 RESULTS

20. Given that the baseline survey data was collected after the COVID-19 pandemic began, we believe the baseline results may be negatively affected. The findings should be interpreted in this context. The reference period for the baseline survey ranges from one (1) week to one (1) year preceding the survey, depending on the specific outcome of interest.

4.2.1 DEMOGRAPHICS

21. Of the 1,500 households, only 1,372 were included in the study as the remaining households either refused to participate in the study, could not be found or were single-headed households so did not meet study selection criteria (although they could participate in the programme). As a result of the impact evaluation's design and inclusion criteria, all 1,372 included households had a woman and a man in the household who were considered "co-heading" the household. As seen in Table 3, 46 percent of the female heads of household were in a civil union, while 40 percent of them were married. The average ages of women and men were comparable at 39.7 and 42.1 years, respectively. Similarly, the average years of education of heads of household were approximately 4 years for both men and women. Additionally, the average household size was 4.5 members, with an average of 1.7 children under the age of 18 years per household.

Table 3: Demographics

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Female head of household			
Age	39.74	13.73	1,372
Years of education	4.17	4.13	1,372
Panel B: Male head of household			
Age	42.15	15.45	1,348
Years of education	4.33	4.15	1,348
Panel C: Household			
Household size	4.47	1.59	1,372
Number of children (< 18)	1.68	1.16	1,372
Female head of household – marital status			
Single	0.08	0.28	1,372
Married	0.4	0.49	1,372
Civil union	0.46	0.5	1,372
Divorced / separated	0.01	0.1	1,372
Widowed	0.04	0.19	1,372
Other	0	0.04	1,372

Note for this table and every table below: Categorical variables are displayed as "yes/no" variables where a respondent answering "yes" ascribes a value of 1, and "no" a value of 0. Thus the mean value displayed here represents the proportion of the sample that belongs in a given category. For example, according to the table above, we can see that 40 percent of the sampled female heads of household are married.

4.2.2 FOOD SECURITY

22. Food security and nutrition are primary outcome areas for the CBT&G window as well as the programme team due to their immediate and long-term impact on household welfare. The main indicator included is the Food Consumption Score (FCS), which represents households' caloric availability, dietary diversity and relative nutritional values of food groups consumed. Table 4 summarizes the results of this outcome.

23. This indicator categorizes households as experiencing varying degrees of food security (poor, borderline or acceptable) based on a usual household diet. The majority of the sample – 97 percent of households – had acceptable consumption levels, while only a very small number of households showed borderline (2 percent) and poor (1 percent) consumption.

24. As shown in Figure 12, there is no difference in food security and nutrition outcomes between households in which the female head of the household was employed compared with those where she was not.

Table 4: Food security

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Food Consumption Score (FCS) – Category			
Poor (0–20)	0.01	0.07	1,350
Borderline (21–34)	0.02	0.14	1,350
Acceptable (35 and over)	0.97	0.16	1,350
Notes: Food FCS ranges from 0 to 112. Categories used for FCS: Cereals, grains, roots and tubers; Legumes/nuts; Milk and other dairy products; Meat, fish and eggs; Vegetables and leaves; Fruits; Oil/fat/butter; Sugar.			

4.2.3 COPING STRATEGIES

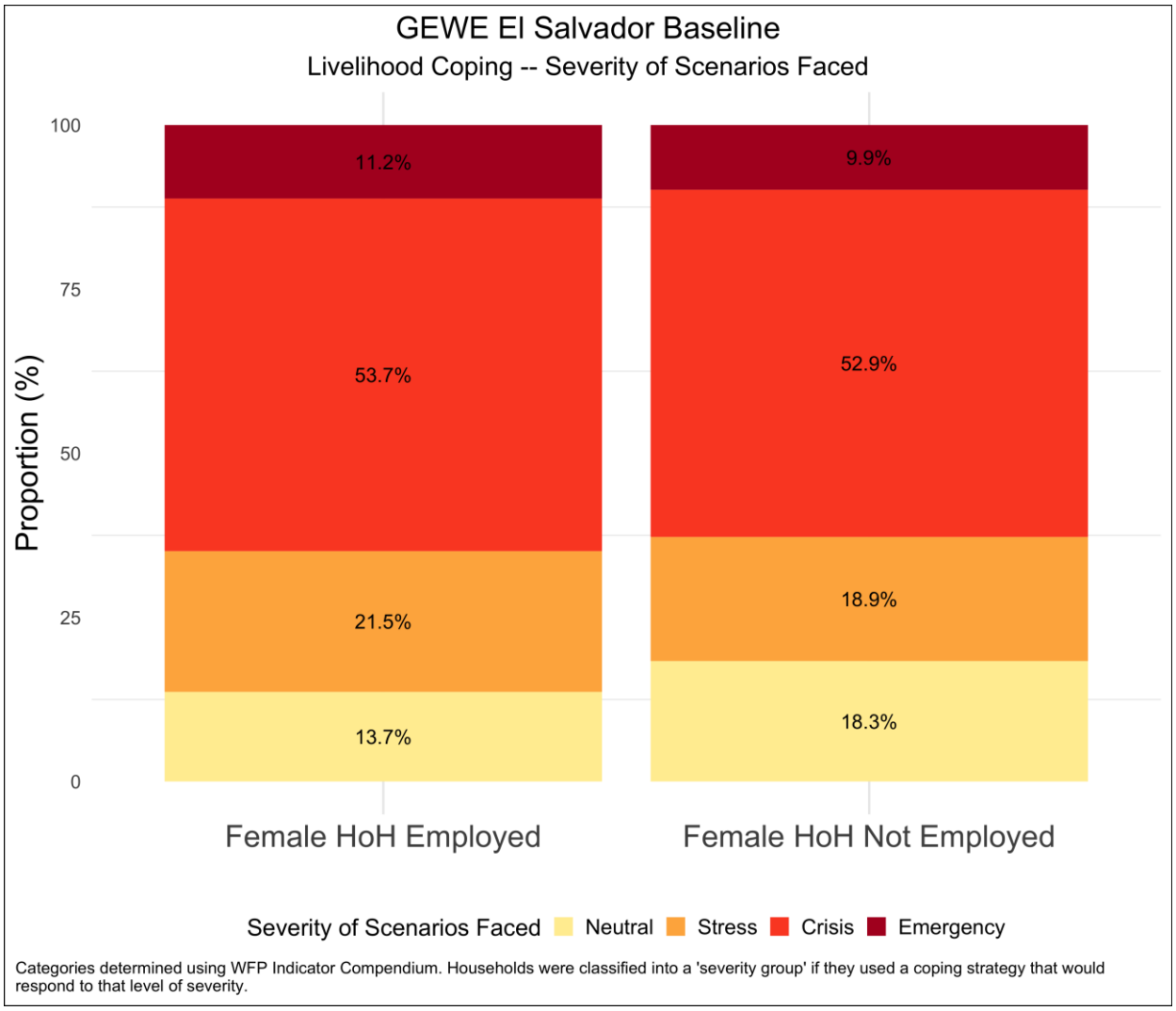
25. The livelihood-based coping strategies for essential needs (LCS) module[1] is used to understand better the longer-term coping capacities of households. These coping strategies help assess longer-term household coping and productive capacities and their future impact on access to essential needs, including food, shelter, health and education. Results on coping strategies are presented in Table 5. In response to shocks experienced, 83% of households reported using at least one LCS, which are categorized into four groups based on severity. A "neutral" strategy (reducing food consumption) was reported by 18 percent of households; 19 percent used a "stress" strategy (e.g., borrowing money, selling household assets); 53 percent used a "crisis" strategy (e.g. selling productive assets, selling livestock); and 10 percent used an "emergency" strategy (begging, selling the family house, consuming seed stocks meant for next season's planting). Households in which the female head was not employed fared slightly better on the LCS index, as can be seen in Figure 5, though the difference was small. This might suggest that female-headed households where the female is employed are more vulnerable and rely on the woman's income. Lastly, an acceptable level of FCS scores among the sample, combined with a high dependence on crisis coping strategies, may suggest that households are relying on crisis coping strategies to smooth their consumption over the long run. The Reduced Coping Strategies Index (rCSI), which is used to assess the level of stress faced by households due to food shortage in the preceding seven days, was not collected at baseline in order to reduce respondent burden. However, it will be presented in reports on subsequent rounds of data.

Table 5: Coping strategies

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Used livelihood-based coping strategy (LCS)	0.83	0.37	1,372
LCS Category			
Neutral	0.18	0.38	1,372
Used stress coping strategy	0.19	0.39	1,372
Used crisis coping strategy	0.53	0.5	1,372
Used emergency coping strategy	0.1	0.3	1,372
Note: Livelihood-based and consumption-based coping strategy scores computed using directions from the WFP Compendium.			

[1] Figure 17 in the appendix provides the classification of the livelihoods coping strategies (LCS).

Figure 5: Livelihood coping strategies (LCS)



4.2.4 FINANCIAL OUTCOMES

Financial activity – savings, loans and sending/receiving transfers – reflect important capabilities of households to withstand shocks and escape poverty, and women often face higher barriers to financial inclusion (WFP, 2021). Female heads of household were asked about their use of financial services. Only 13 percent of women reported owning one or more bank accounts. Of these, 95 percent stated using traditional bank accounts, and only 1 percent mentioned mobile bank services. Additionally, 46 percent of the owners of traditional bank accounts reported having visited a Bank/ATM in the last 6 months.

Table 6: Financial outcomes

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Has a bank/mobile banking account	0.13	0.33	1,371
Bank account type			
Traditional bank	0.95	0.22	173
Mobile bank	0.01	0.08	173
Other	0.05	0.22	173
Visited bank/ATM in past 6 months	0.46	0.5	164

4.2.5 EARNINGS

26. Table 7 presents the mean earnings by household and disaggregated by gender for the sample. The yearly earnings from wages were significantly higher for male heads of household (USD 2,608.28) compared with female heads of household (USD 392.56). Similarly, men also reported higher yearly earnings from farming (USD 27.39) compared with women (USD 9.15). The yearly earnings from livestock and business are similar across genders (USD 6.70 and USD 3.92 for women, and USD 4.28 and USD 3.32 for men). Of the sample, 69 percent reported having at least one household member employed in the previous 12 months. Only 30 percent of the households reported owning or renting a farm, while 13 percent reported renting or owning livestock, resulting in a low average of agricultural earnings across the sample. In contrast, 14 percent reported operating a non-agricultural business, whereas 15 percent were not involved in any of these four activities.

27. The yearly mean earnings from wages for households, which includes income from both heads of household plus any working members, was USD 3,949.37 in the sample. In comparison, the yearly mean earnings from farming were much lower (USD 43.07), as well as the yearly mean earnings from livestock (USD 12.83) and business (USD 10.16). As farming, livestock and business earnings are reported at the household level, we computed income earned per respondent (male and female) using the following method: we asked respondents to report profits, household managers and time spent working by individual household members for each endeavour. We then "distributed" profits between household members based on the time they spent working on the farming/livestock/business, up to a earnings of USD 8 per day (the equivalent of a typical daily wage for the region). Past that threshold, any remaining profits were distributed evenly between the household managers.

Table 7: Earnings

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Female head of household			
Yearly earnings from wages (2019 PPP USD) yearly	392.56	2,039.49	1,391
Earnings from farming (2019 PPP USD)	9.15	47.36	1,391
Yearly earnings from livestock (2019 PPP USD) yearly	6.7	33.86	1,391
Earnings from business (2019 PPP USD)	3.92	30.05	1,391
Panel B: Male head of household			
Yearly earnings from wages (2019 PPP USD) yearly	2,608.28	4,782.5	1,367
Earnings from farming (2019 PPP USD)	27.39	85.81	1,367
Yearly earnings from livestock (2019 PPP USD) yearly	4.28	28.65	1,367
Earnings from business (2019 PPP USD)	3.32	27.25	1,367
Panel C: Household			
At least one HH member employed in the past 12 months	0.69	0.46	1,391
HH owns or rents a farm	0.31	0.46	1,390
HH owns or rents livestock	0.13	0.34	1,390
HH operates a non-agricultural business	0.13	0.34	1,389
HH not involved in any of these four activities	0.15	0.36	1,391
Yearly earnings from wages (2019 PPP USD)	3,949.37	6,605.28	1,391
Yearly earnings from farming (2019 PPP USD) yearly	43.07	134.25	1,391
Earnings from livestock (2019 PPP USD)	12.83	65.66	1,391
Yearly earnings from business (2019 PPP USD)	10.16	73.14	1,391

Notes: Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) values calculated using monthly CPI data from the Central Bank of El Salvador and the World Bank's PPP conversion factor for private consumption (most recent value for El Salvador is from 2019). Values were winsorized at the 0 and 99th percentiles. Individual earnings from farming, livestock and business were calculated by taking their respective profits and subtracting the value of other household members' labour, splitting the remaining profits between the farming, livestock or business "managers". Value of labour was calculated by attributing profits to each HH member by time spent working, up to a daily median wage of USD8. Households that did not possess a given earning source were considered to have earned USD 0 from that source.

4.2.6 CONSUMPTION

28. The primary outcome variable of interest is the annual predicted or estimated consumption, seen in Table 8. The variable has been created using the five goods and coefficients produced by a Lasso regression. The goods that were selected include educational expenditure, airtime, women's footwear, women's tailoring and beauty/cosmetic products. We would expect the consumption values to be aligned to the earnings reported in the previous section. However, as the project involves poor households, it is consistent with the literature to expect consumption to be slightly higher than earnings. We see this with household predicted consumption at USD 4,854.87. As the average number of members in a household is 4.47, this leaves us with a per capita income of USD 1,154.16.

Table 8: Consumption

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Annual predicted household consumption (2019 USD PPP)	4,854.87	3,778.67	1,353
Annual predicted consumption per capita (2019 USD PPP)	1,154.16	997.86	1,353
Notes: Values were winsorized at the 5th and 95th percentiles. Predicted consumption was created using a set of five goods and the coefficients produced by a Lasso regression. Those goods were: educational expenditure, airtime, women's footwear, women's tailoring and beauty/cosmetic products.			

4.2.7 MIGRATION

29. As El Salvador experiences large flows of domestic migration, conditional and unconditional cash transfers might have an effect on migration incentives. For this reason, migration behaviour is a secondary outcome of interest for the impact evaluation.

30. As seen in Table 9, the proportion of female and male heads of household that reported ever having moved to another department or municipality within El Salvador is very similar (20 percent of women and 23 percent of men). However, the main reason for their move varies across genders. For women, the main motivation was family reunification (40 percent), followed by economic reasons or education (29 percent). Conversely, economic reasons or education (39 percent) was the main motive for men, followed by family reunification (29 percent). In addition, 9 percent of the male heads of household reported violence within the community as the main reason, compared with 5 percent of the female heads. Violence within the family was reported equally by 5 percent of female and male heads of household. To a lesser extent, other reasons mentioned were natural disaster (2 percent for women and 1 percent for men) and health (1 percent for both women and men).

Table 9: Migration

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Female head of household			
Migrated to another municipality/department	0.2	0.4	1,370
Primary reason for migration			
Family reunification	0.4	0.49	274
Health reasons	0.01	0.12	274
Economic or education reasons	0.29	0.46	274
Violence within family	0.05	0.21	274
Violence within community	0.05	0.23	274
Natural disasters	0.02	0.13	274
Other	0.18	0.38	274

Panel B: Male head of household			
Migrated to another municipality/department	0.23	0.42	1,234
Primary reason for migration			
Family reunification	0.29	0.45	275
Health reasons	0.01	0.1	275
Economic or education reasons	0.39	0.49	275
Violence within family	0.05	0.21	275
Violence within community	0.09	0.28	275
Natural disasters	0.01	0.1	275
Other	0.17	0.38	275
Note: Migration is defined as moving to a new municipality or department.			

4.2.8 TIME USE

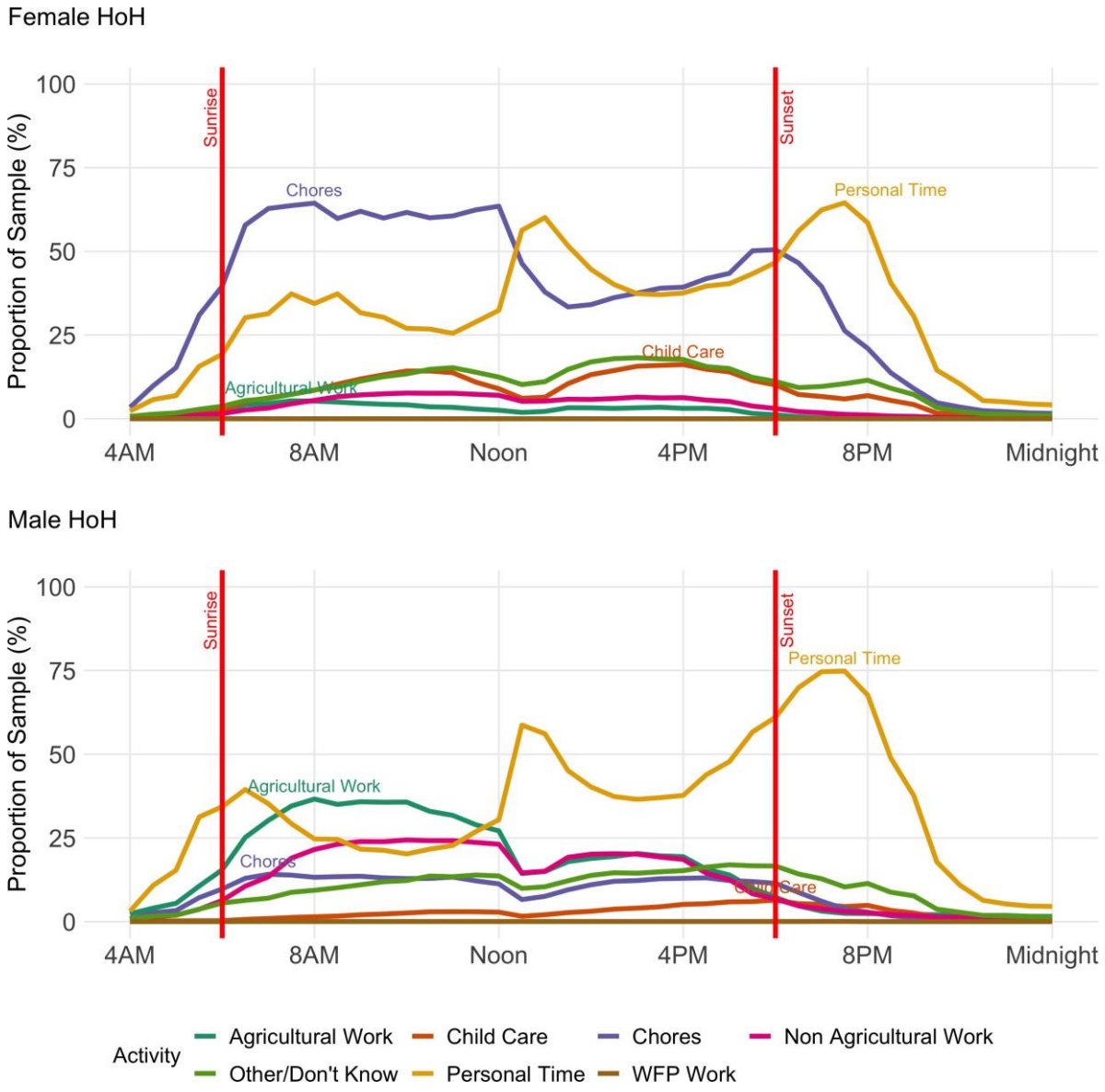
31. An important measure of agency across genders is how much time is spent on productive activities and chores on a daily basis. In the literature, a striking stylized fact about gender differences in time use is that when women work for a wage they reduce leisure time, whereas men do not shift into home chores (Hochschild and Machung, 2012; Bertrand et al., 2015). Overall, we find the baseline results are in line with this literature. Table 10 shows on average women spent 6.98 hours per day on chores (Panel A), while men only spent 1.8 hours (Panel B). The mean time spent outside the home is 6.85 hours for men compared with 2.58 hours for women heads of household – more than a four-hour difference. Similarly, male heads of household spent more time on salaried and agricultural work (with a mean of 3.74 hours and 1.13 hours, respectively) than female heads of household (with a mean of 0.59 hours and 0.23 hours, respectively). This is consistent with the reported earnings differential between the genders observed in the previous section. The time spent on self-employment is similarly low across genders, with a mean of 0.2 hours for men and 0.18 hours for women.

32. Figure 6 suggests the increase in hours spent on chores by women is accompanied by reduced personal time after sunset in comparison to men. It remains to be examined, following programme implementation, how an increase in women's engagement in work outside the household (Treatment Group 1) will impact the division of time use across genders compared with the group where the households receive an unconditional cash transfer (Treatment Group 2) and the control group (both men and women work after the endline surveys are complete).

Table 10: Time Use

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Female head of household			
Time spent outside the home	2.58	3.22	1,279
Time spent working in self-employment	0.18	0.97	1,279
Time spent on HH agricultural work	0.23	0.75	1,279
Time spent working on a salary	0.59	1.85	1,279
Time spent working on chores	6.98	2.84	1,279
Panel B: Male head of household			
Time spent outside the home	6.85	3.86	1,063
Time spent working in self-employment	0.2	1.09	1,063
Time spent on HH agricultural work	1.13	2.2	1,063
Time spent working on a salary	3.74	3.71	1,063
Time spent working on chores	1.8	1.99	1,063
Note: All values are in hours per day.			

Figure 6: Time use on a typical day: activity distribution



4.2.9 AGENCY (DECISION MAKING)

33. By "agency", we refer to the ability to make decisions. While we do observe differences in time use across genders (see the previous section), it is also important to ask if women have the *agency* to decide how they use their time, for instance, on self-employed work, salaried work, household chores or leisure (Lundberg and Pollak, 1993).

34. We asked women who – in their view – *actually decides* on their time allocation for these activities in their household: the women themselves (the female head of the household), the male head of the household, or both. The responses were then coded as values +1, 0, or -1, respectively for each respondent. To complete the index, a weighted average across responses is calculated that takes values between -1 and +1, where -1 would suggest the male head of the household has total agency, +1 would suggest the female head of the household has total agency, and 0 would suggest both have equal agency.

Figure 7: Agency of time use – index example

35. Table 11 provides the combined index scores, as well as a breakdown of the components and Figure 7 presents a graphical example of how the index is constructed.

36. An overall index score of -0.701 for women's agency over men's time use (Panel B of Table 11) suggests that men generally decide how much time they spend on the four activities. Similarly, an overall index score of 0.624 (Panel A) for women's agency over women's time use can be interpreted as women generally deciding how to spend their time independently. However, when comparing these values, it can be observed that women report slightly less agency than men.

37. Comparatively, women reported having less agency to decide their time spent on work with 0.383 for self-employed work and 0.449 for paid work when compared with 0.677 and -0.680 for men, respectively.

38. Women and men express virtually the same agency over time spent on leisure activities (with scores of 0.781 and -0.789, respectively).

39. Looking at chores, women report more agency than men (with a score of 0.814 compared with men's – 0.649). This shows that the overall index does not tell the full story. While women do enjoy agency over decisions on chores, they express much less agency on matters of work.

40. Lastly, an index score of 0.269 for women's agency over consumption (Panel C) suggests that women have agency on how much money is spent, such as large household purchases, male heads of household purchases, female heads of household purchases, and female heads of household health purchases (with scores of 0.335, 0.138, 0.499 and 0.149 respectively).

Table 11: Agency

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Agency over women's time use – index	**0.624**	**0.347**	**1,215**
Work (Self-employed)	0.383	0.636	1,232
Work (Paid)	0.449	0.606	1,236
Chores	0.814	0.411	1,251
Leisure	0.781	0.446	1,244
Panel B: Agency over men's time use – index	**-0.701**	**0.364**	**1,221**
Work (Self-Employed)	-0.677	0.537	1,243
Work (Paid)	-0.68	0.499	1,233
Chores	-0.649	0.596	1,249
Leisure	-0.789	0.451	1,247
Panel C: Agency over consumption – Index	**0.269**	**0.357**	**1,184**
HH purchases	0.335	0.599	1,226
Male HoH purchases	0.138	0.645	1,235
Female HoH purchases	0.499	0.522	1,239
Female HoH health purchases	0.149	0.621	1,218

Notes: So that we can compare these values, the table displays results only for double-headed households. Each index is created on the basis of questions about the four displayed activities: self-employed work, paid work, chores and leisure. For time- use questions, the respondent was asked who they thought should accomplish each of these activities: the male head of household, the female head of household, or both. The consumption index was based on questions about large household purchases, purchases made using each head of household's income, and the female head of household's health-care expenses. The indices were constructed using inverse covariance weighting. Values are between -1 and 1, with 1 roughly meaning perception of full agency and beneficial attitudes towards the female HoH and -1 meaning no agency and harmful attitudes towards the female HoH.

4.2.10 ATTITUDES

41. Having considered *actual time use* (see Section 4.2.8) and *who makes decisions about time use* (see Section 4.2.9), we also wanted to know who men and women think (1) should spend more time and (2) should make decisions about time spent on each of the four activities. This can be understood as attitudes towards (1) time use and (2) agency over time use (Dhar et al., 2018). Similar to the above, the index takes values -1 to 1. For time use, 1 means that women *should spend more time* on a particular activity. For agency over time use, 1 means that women *should make decisions about time spent* on a particular activity.

Table 12: Attitudes

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Women's attitudes towards time use – index	**-0.257**	**0.244**	**1,253**
Work (Self-employed)	-0.413	0.516	1,253
Work (Paid)	-0.206	0.455	1,253
Chores	0.534	0.518	1,253
Leisure	0.039	0.374	1,253
Panel B: Men's attitudes towards time use – index	**-0.298**	**0.258**	**1,231**
Work (Self-employed)	-0.68	0.507	1,232
Work (Paid)	-0.349	0.511	1,232
Chores	0.443	0.519	1,232
Leisure	0.141	0.473	1,231

Panel C: Women's attitudes towards agency over women's time use – index	**0.658**	**0.361**	**1,223**
Work (Self-employed)	0.528	0.595	1,238
Work (Paid)	0.51	0.596	1,237
Chores	0.759	0.467	1,250
Leisure	0.786	0.448	1,248
Panel D: Men's attitudes towards agency over women's time use – index	**0.515**	**0.38**	**1,192**
Work (Self-employed)	0.295	0.643	1,208
Work (Paid)	0.391	0.609	1,207
Chores	0.647	0.53	1,228
Leisure	0.681	0.508	1,229

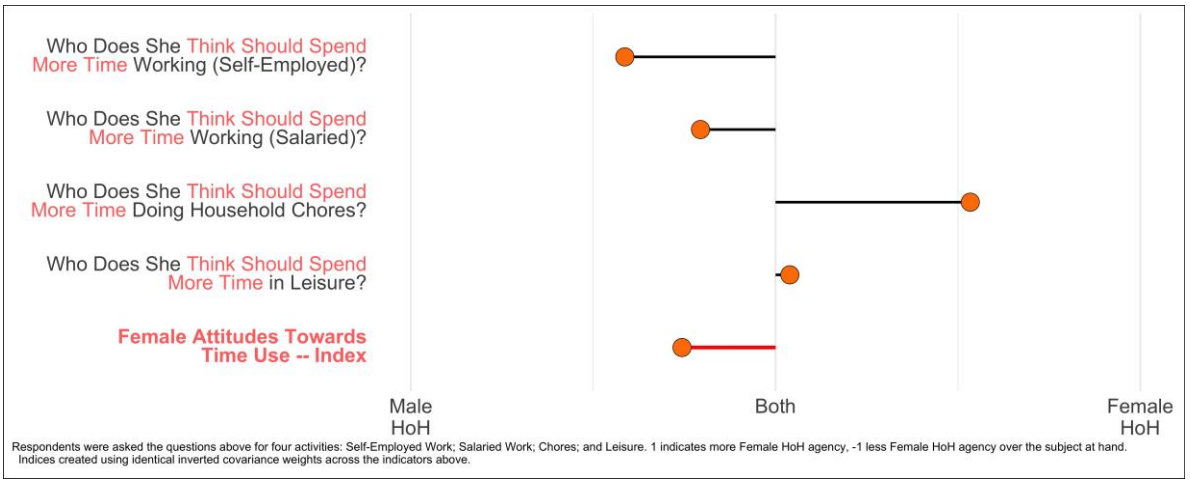
Notes: So that we can compare these values, the table displays results only for double-headed households. Each indicator is an index created on the basis of questions about four activities: self-employed work, paid work, chores and leisure. For time-use questions, the respondent was asked who they thought should accomplish each of these activities: the male head of household, the female head of household, or both. The indices were constructed using inverse covariance weighting. Values are between -1 and 1, with 1 roughly meaning perception of full agency and beneficial attitudes towards the female HoH, and -1 meaning no agency and harmful attitudes towards the female HoH.

42. Table 12 presents the index value for attitudes towards time use for men and women using an inverse covariance weighting approach similar to the one detailed above.

43. It is important here to distinguish between the construction of the time-use indices (Panels A and B) and the **agency over time use** indices (Panels C and D). The top half (panel A and B) of Table 12 presents the index value for attitudes towards time use *("Who should do it?"*) for men and women, along with their component breakdown. The time-use indices weight women spending time on chores *negatively*, as the time-use gap on chores is generally considered to be detrimental to women (Dhar et al., 2018). The agency over time-use indices, conversely, weight women's decision making over time spent on chores *positively*, as we consider more agency over these activities beneficial to women.

44. Panel A displays women's overall index value for attitudes towards time use (-0.257), and Panel B displays men's attitudes towards time use (-0.289). Overall, this suggests that both women and men believed in an unequal division of labour responsibilities (more work and leisure for men, fewer chores than women). However, women's attitudes towards time use varied by activity. For example, women believed that while men should spend more time on paid work and self-employed work (with mean scores of -0.413 and -0.206), men should spend less time on chores, with a mean score of 0.534. Women believed that both genders should spend balanced time on leisure, with a mean score of 0.039 (close to zero). Figure 8 presents the figures of Panel A graphically.

Figure 8: Women's attitudes towards time use – index example



45. As shown in Panel B of Table 12, men believed that they should spend more time on paid work and self-employed activities, with mean values of -0.680 and -0.349, respectively. Like women, men also believed that both genders should spend roughly equal time on leisure, with a score of 0.141 (close to zero). But men also believed that women should spend more time on chores, with a score of 0.443, in line with gender roles that are unfavourable to women.

46. Panels A and B of Table 12 outline results indicating who should spend time on the listed activities. An equally important question is who women and men think should make decisions pertaining to time use of women on the four activities, which is displayed in Panels C and D of Table 12.

47. With an overall index scores of 0.658 (Panel C) and 0.515 (Panel D), both men and women believed that most of the decisions about women's time use on average should be made by women. However, there is a difference between men and women on who they think should decide on women's agency over paid and self-employed work. While women strongly think it should be decided by women, with scores of 0.528 and 0.510 respectively, men think they should have less agency over these tasks, with a score of 0.295 and 0.391 respectively. Chores and leisure too are activities where men think women should have less agency than compared with women, with scores of 0.647 and 0.681, respectively. Women have higher scores with 0.759 and 0.786, respectively, for chores and leisure.

4.2.11 PERCEPTION OF NORMS

48. To recap, the previous sections discussed:

4.2.11.1 actual time use in their household (Section 4.2.8)

4.2.11.2 who makes the decisions on time use in their household (Section 4.2.9)

4.2.11.3 attitudes as to who should spend time on tasks (Section 4.2.10, Table 12, panels A and B); and

4.2.11.4 who should have agency to make decisions on time use (Section 4.2.10, Table 12, panels C and D).

49. Lastly, perceptions of community norms play an important role in determining women's agency (Beaman et al., 2009; Bursztyn et al., 2018). How people perceive other community members' time use, and agency over time use, may feed into their own decision making. As participation in FFA is expected to increase women's interactions with other members of their community, shifted perceptions of community norms might thus be the mechanism through which household decision making is affected.

Perceptions: Time use in the community

50. We asked both men and women about their perceived time use in the community (their perceptions of community norms) for the four activities. The data is shown in Panels A and B of Table 13.

51. The weighted index takes values -1 to 1 and represents who (male or female) in the community the respondent believes spends more time on a particular activity. Similar to attitudes over time use (see Section 4.2.10), the "perception of norms of time use" indices negatively weight women spending more time doing chores.

52. Women (Panel A) believed that time-use norms in the community favour men (more work and fewer chores), with an index score of -0.384. Women believed that men in the community spend more time on self-employed work and paid work, with scores of -0.555 and -0.458, respectively, at the community level. However, they believed that women in the community spend more time on chores and leisure (with index scores of 0.812 and 0.132, respectively). Figure 9 presents Panel A graphically.

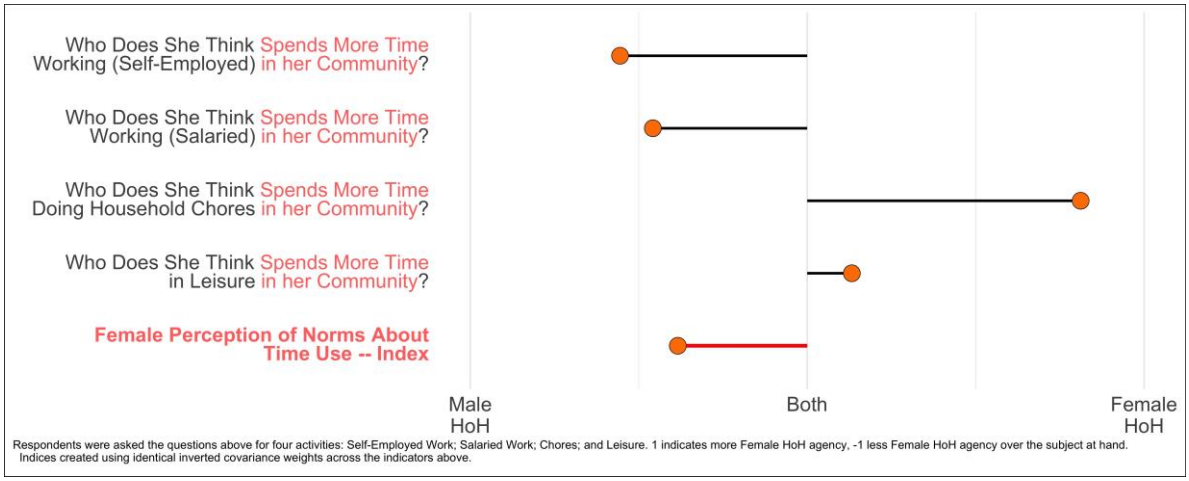
53. Men (Panel B) also believed that time-use norms in the community favour men, with an index score of -0.399 in the community. They believed that men spend more time on self-employed work and paid work (with index scores of -0.636 and -0.496, respectively), while women spend more time on chores and leisure (with index scores of 0.599 and 0.532, respectively, in the community).

Table 13: Perception of norms

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Women's perception of norms of time use – index	**-0.384**	**0.321**	**1,253**
Work (Self-employed)	-0.555	0.587	1,253
Work (Paid)	-0.458	0.603	1,253
Chores	0.812	0.426	1,253
Leisure	0.132	0.724	1,253
Panel B: Men's perception of norms of time use – index	**-0.399**	**0.315**	**1,230**
Work (Self-employed)	-0.636	0.543	1,232
Work (Paid)	-0.496	0.58	1,232
Chores	0.706	0.497	1,232
Leisure	0.091	0.634	1,230
Panel C: Women's perception of norms of agency over women's time use – index	**0.415**	**0.416**	**1,252**
Work (Self-employed)	0.188	0.672	1,253
Work (Paid)	0.283	0.629	1,253
Chores	0.599	0.573	1,252
Leisure	0.532	0.59	1,253
Panel D: Men's perception of norms of agency over women's time use – index	**0.421**	**0.423**	**1,232**
Work (Self-employed)	0.2	0.684	1,232
Work (Paid)	0.28	0.656	1,232
Chores	0.588	0.572	1,232
Leisure	0.558	0.573	1,232
Panel E: Women's perception of norms of attitudes towards time use – index	**-0.337**	**0.296**	**1,253**
Work (Self-employed)	-0.547	0.531	1,253
Work (Paid)	-0.389	0.527	1,253
Chores	0.643	0.516	1,253
Leisure	0.098	0.556	1,253
Panel F: Women's perception of norms of attitudes towards agency over women's time use – index	**0.463**	**0.427**	**1,253**
Work (Self-employed)	0.316	0.655	1,253
Work (Paid)	0.329	0.628	1,253
Chores	0.615	0.564	1,253
Leisure	0.542	0.588	1,253

Notes: So that we can compare these values, the table displays results only for double-headed households. Each indicator is an index created on the basis of questions about four activities: self-employed work, paid work, chores and leisure. For time-use questions, the respondent was asked who they thought should accomplish each of these activities: the male head of household, the female head of household, or both. The indices were constructed using inverse covariance weighting. Values are between -1 and 1, with 1 roughly meaning perception of full agency and beneficial attitudes towards the female HoH and -1 meaning no agency and harmful attitudes towards the female HoH.

Figure 9: Women's perception of norms about time use – index



Perceptions: Decisions about time use in the community

54. We also asked questions about who the respondents thought *made decisions* on each of the four activities in the community (Panels C and D of Table 13).

55. Both women and men believed that most of the decisions about women's time use were made by women in the community (with index scores of 0.415 for women and 0.421 for men). But, again, this is mostly driven by decisions on chores and leisure.

56. Women (Panel C) believed that decisions on their time use for chores and leisure were made by women in the community (with index scores of 0.599 and 0.532, respectively). Women believed that women make decisions on women's time at self-employed work and paid work in the community (with index scores of 0.188 and 0.283, respectively).

57. Men (Panel D) believed that decisions about time use for women's chores and leisure were made by women in the community (with index scores of 0.588 and 0.558, respectively). They believed that women make decisions on women's self-employed and paid work but with less agency than compared with women in the community (with index scores of 0.200 and 0.280, respectively).

Perceptions of community attitudes: Who should spend time on activities?

58. Additionally, women were asked their views regarding community attitudes: Who the community thought should spend more time on each of the activities ("perception of community norms of attitudes towards time use")? The results are presented in Panel E of Table 13.

59. With an overall score of -0.337, women believed that the community considers the distribution of household activities in a manner that is favourable to men (more time at work, fewer chores). However, there is variation across the activities too. For example, while women thought the community thinks that men should spend more time on self-employed work and paid work (with index scores of -0.547 and -0.389, respectively), they thought women should spend more time on chores (with an index score of 0.643). Women also believed that the community thinks both men and women should spend more time on leisure (with an index score of 0.098).

Perceptions of community attitudes: Who should make decisions on time use?

60. Lastly, women were asked about who the community thinks should make decisions about time use. The results are presented in Panel F of Table 13. The overall index score of 0.463 suggests that women thought the community thinks that women should make most of the decisions on women's time use. However, this is again mostly driven by chores. In particular, women believed that the community's norms require women to make decisions about time use for chores and leisure (with index scores of 0.615 and 0.542, respectively). While women make decisions on time use for self-employed work and paid work too, but with relatively less agency (with index scores of 0.316 and 0.329, respectively).

4.2.12 PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING

61. A significant aspect of (measuring) agency is understanding whether the respondents perceive a sense of control over their life and are able to initiate actions. This is referred to as "locus of control". Table 14 shows results for locus of control, depression and life satisfaction.

62. The locus of control score was computed using the Rotter's (1954) method. A high locus of control score signifies greater *external* control over respondents' decisions and therefore the lower the perceived sense of internal control individuals perceive to have over their life. We find the locus of control to be 4.93 and 4.58 among women and men, respectively (on a scale from 0 to 10). The slightly higher score for women compared with men suggests the slightly lower perceived sense of control women have compared with men. As shown in Figure 10, households in which the female head was employed had higher locus of control scores (and thus lower control).

63. The baseline survey also asked about depression using the standard Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9). The data shows high frequencies of reported depression, with nearly half of the men reporting at least mild depression symptoms. In addition, we find 5 percent of women stated they were moderately severe or severely depressed, compared with 3 percent of men.

64. In addition to measures of depression, stress scores were calculated using the "Perceived Stress Scale" from Cohen, Kamarck and Mermelstein (1983). As shown in Table 14, 80 percent of women reported they were either moderately or highly stressed, whereas 69 percent of men reported being moderately or highly stressed. Lastly, we measure "life satisfaction" scores using the Diener et al. (1985) method. Both men and women report high levels of satisfaction (above 65 percent for both genders when combining the categories "high" and "very high" satisfaction).

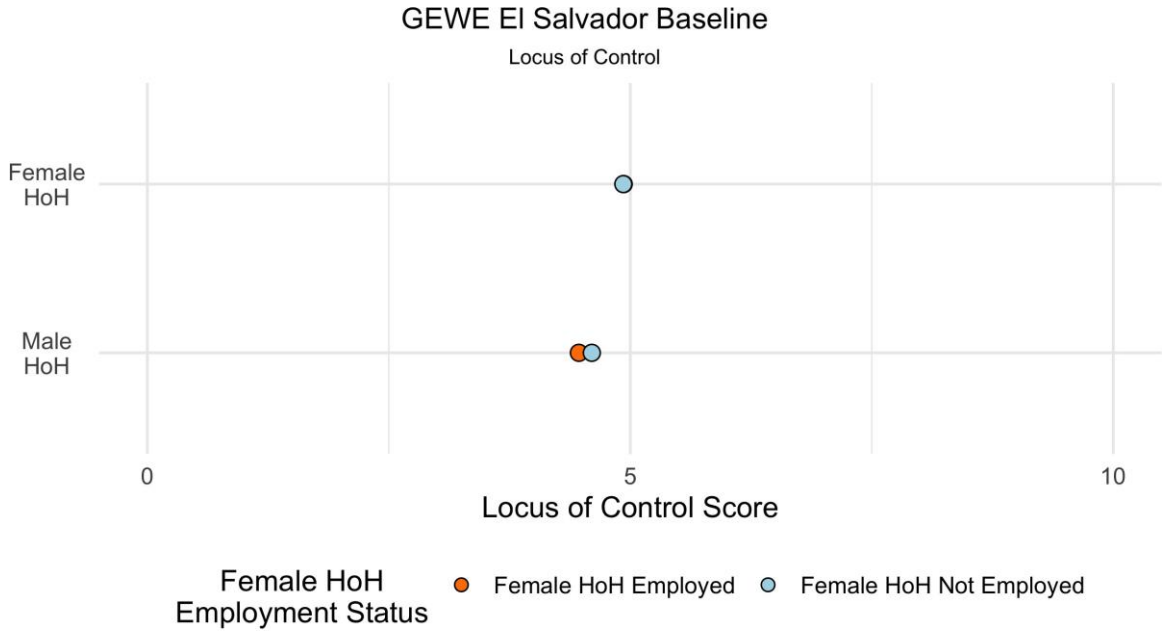
Table 14: Well-being

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Female head of household			
Locus of control score	4.93	1.57	1,370
Stress Score Category	0.2	0.4	1,370
Low stress	0.76	0.43	1,370
Moderate stress	0.04	0.19	1,370
High stress			
	0.69	0.46	1,370
Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) Category	0.18	0.39	1,370
Minimal depression	0.08	0.27	1,370
Mild depression	0.04	0.19	1,370
Moderate depression	0.01	0.12	1,370
Moderately severe depression			
Severe depression			
Life Satisfaction Score Category	0	0.05	1,368
Extreme dissatisfaction	0.05	0.21	1,368
Dissatisfaction	0.11	0.32	1,368
Below average satisfaction	0.2	0.4	1,368
Average satisfaction	0.35	0.48	1,368
High satisfaction	0.28	0.45	1,368
Very high satisfaction			

Panel B: Male head of household			
Locus of control score	4.58	1.59	1,233
Stress Score Category			
Low stress	0.31	0.46	1,233
Moderate stress	0.67	0.47	1,233
High stress	0.02	0.13	1,233
Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) Category	0.54	0.5	1,233
Minimal depression	0.32	0.47	1,233
Mild depression	0.11	0.31	1,233
Moderate depression	0.02	0.15	1,233
Moderately severe depression	0.01	0.09	1,233
Severe depression			
Life Satisfaction Score Category	0	0.05	1,232
Extreme dissatisfaction	0.04	0.19	1,232
Dissatisfaction	0.07	0.26	1,232
Below average satisfaction	0.21	0.41	1,232
Average satisfaction	0.35	0.48	1,232
High Satisfaction	0.33	0.47	1,232
Very high satisfaction			

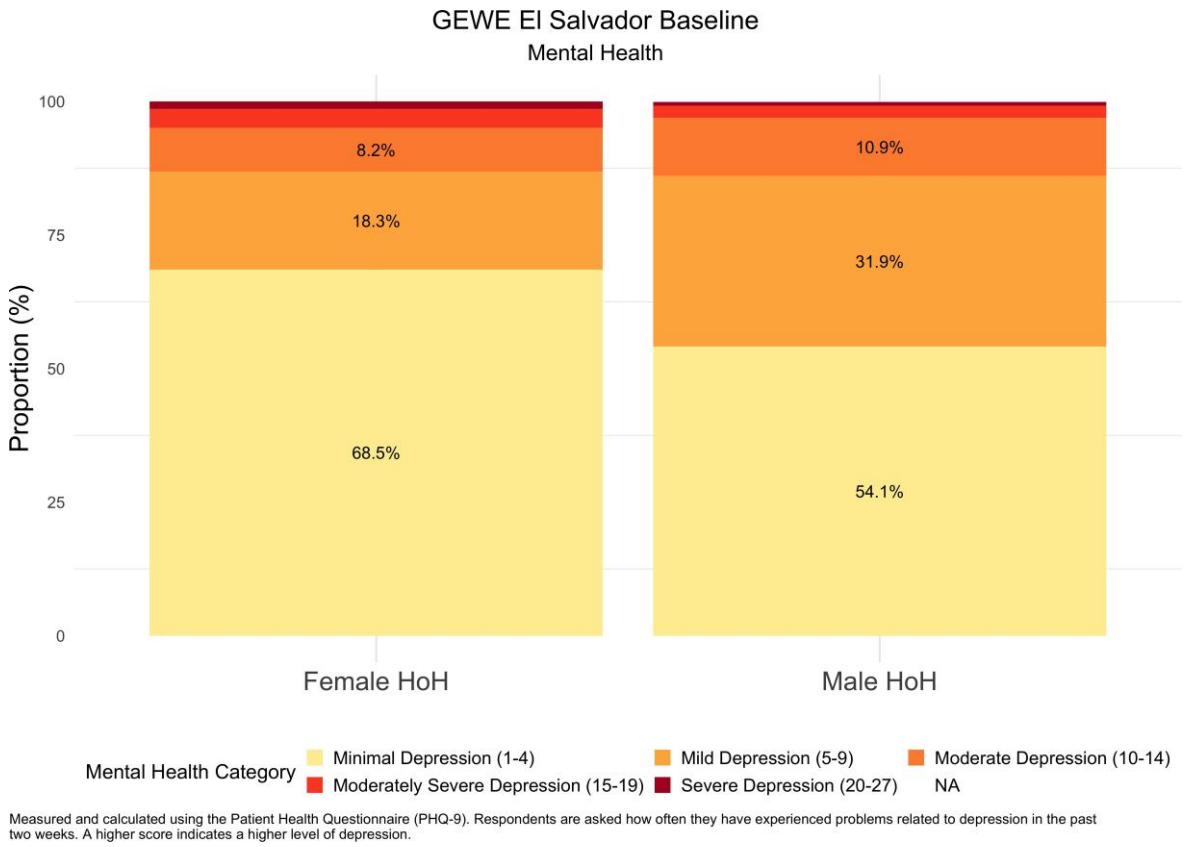
Notes: Stress data and life satisfaction data were not collected from male heads of household. Locus of control score was calculated using Rotter (1966). A higher locus of control score implies a feeling of less control over one's environment. Stress score was calculated using the "Perceived Stress Scale" from Cohen, Kamarck and Mermelstein (1983). Depression score was calculated using the standard Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9). Life satisfaction score was calculated using Diener et al. (1985).

Figure 10: Locus of control



Locus of Control calculated using Rotter (1990). A higher Locus of Control score implies a belief in an external locus of control and that the respondent believes that they have less control over events in their life.

Figure 11: Mental health



Measured and calculated using the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9). Respondents are asked how often they have experienced problems related to depression in the past two weeks. A higher score indicates a higher level of depression.

4.2.13 INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE

65. Intimate partner violence (IPV) is a serious issue for many women around the world. Women with limited agency or living in poor households are found to be disproportionately affected. As Haushofer et al. (2019) have argued, improvements in economic outcomes of the household, such as receiving cash transfers, may reduce IPV. This is also a key question for the impact evaluation, which is why baseline data on IPV was collected.

66. It must be noted that because data collection on IPV involves raising sensitive questions that require respondents to recollect trauma, all efforts were made to ensure that the interviewers were trained in this regard. A half-day training on how to approach sensitive questions about gender-based violence – intimate partner violence (GBV–IPV) was provided to the enumerators by a Gender and Protection Officer from the WFP Country Office. If the respondent reported a case of IPV, they had to follow a strict protocol that included providing a set of referral services.

67. As shown in Table 15, a large proportion of women (48 percent) reported having suffered any one type of abuse. Among the women interviewed, 47 percent of women reported psychological abuse, 7 percent of women reported physical abuse and 4 percent of women reported sexual abuse. The individual percentages for each type of abuse, and the proportion of the sample that has experienced them, can be found in the Appendix. The literature suggests that an improvement in the empowerment of women within the household may reduce abuse. It will be important to see if the programme has a causal impact on these outcomes.

Table 15: Intimate Partner Violence (IPV)

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Suffered any of the below abuses	0.48	0.5	1,159
Psychological abuse	0.47	0.5	1,159
Physical abuse	0.07	0.26	1,159
Sexual abuse	0.04	0.19	1,155
Note: These questions were asked to female heads of household who reported being in an active relationship at the time of the survey.			

4.2.14 CRIME

68. In societies where crime is a significant aspect of daily life, one could expect it to affect individual agency in general and women's agency in particular. Thus, in the context of El Salvador, we collected data on the presence of violence to understand how it could potentially impact the agency exercised by women. To understand the relative impact of crime and violence on women compared with men, we asked both the male and female heads of household about the presence of violence.

69. The responses of women and men were remarkably similar to how crime has had an impact on their mobility outside of the house. Both men and women did not leave the house for safety reasons 24 percent and 26 percent of the time in the last 30 days, respectively. This was mostly driven by the fear of violence in the community (51 percent of men and 43 percent of women). Of all interviewed, 20 percent and 26 percent of these men and women, respectively, felt unsafe to leave their house because of the presence of police or the army. Of all interviewed, 23 percent of men and 19 percent of women reported witnessing an attack on one or two occasions.

Table 16: Crime

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Panel A: Female head of household			
Did not leave for safety reasons	0.26	0.44	1,370
Did not leave home for the fear of violence in the community	0.43	0.5	355
Did not leave home for the fear of the police/army	0.26	0.44	355
No. of times witnessed an attack	0.81	0.39	1,368
Never	0.08	0.27	1,368
Once	0.11	0.31	1,368
Twice			
Panel B: Male head of household			
Did not leave for safety reasons	0.24	0.43	1,234
Did not leave home for the fear of violence in the community	0.51	0.5	298
Did not leave home for the fear of the police/army	0.2	0.4	298
No. of times witnessed an attack	0.78	0.42	1,233
Never	0.08	0.27	1,233
Once	0.15	0.35	1,233
Twice			
Note: Violence in the community includes threats and extortion.			

5. Challenges and conclusions

5.1 CHALLENGES

73. While the execution of the baseline survey has gone well, there are challenges to the process that we need to keep in mind as they may influence how we interpret the results from the endline survey. There could be better outside options available to participants that could reduce the number of participants in our sample who receive the treatment. This could potentially reduce the statistical power we need to observe the impact.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

74. This descriptive baseline analysis highlights the potential of Food Assessment for Assets (FFA) to generate sustained impacts on households' livelihoods and well-being. The data shows that targeted households are highly vulnerable. Real annual household consumption was USD 4,344 (just USD 3 per capita per day). Wage labour represents 98 percent of household income, and 83 percent of households reported relying on emergency or crisis coping strategies. Additionally, around 20 percent of household heads have reported ever moving to another department or municipality within El Salvador either to look for better economic or educational opportunities, or for family reunification. This shows the potential for reliable sources of income, such as from public works and diversified livelihoods from asset creation, to increase household resilience meaningfully.

75. Intra-household gender inequality is substantial. Women heads of household frequently reported intimate partner violence and high rates of depression. In addition, women have less agency over their time use and earn 15 percent of what male heads of household earn. Additionally, perception of norms seems to reiterate gender differences further, making it harder for women to change intra-household allocation of time on task. These correlations may understate the importance of interventions that increase women's earnings to reduce intra-household gender inequality – more vulnerable households appear to rely more on wage income from women heads of household, suggesting interventions to reduce household vulnerability and increase women's agency are complementary.

76. Lastly, basic balance checks are consistent with successful implementation of the cross-community randomization, sampling and the baseline survey. This successful implementation is necessary to ensure that the impact evaluation will deliver rigorous estimates of the short-run and medium-run impacts of unconditional cash-based transfers for men and women's FFA on a broad range of outcomes associated with resilience, women's economic empowerment and household well-being.

77. The next step is the production of the endline report, which will explore the causal impacts of the programme on women's empowerment, as well as households' livelihoods and sustained well-being.

References

Beaman, L., Chattopadhyay, R., Duflo, E., Pande, R. & Topalova, P. 2009. Powerful Women: Does Exposure Reduce Bias? *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 124(4): 1497–1540.

Bertrand, M., Kamenica, E. & Pan, J. 2015. Gender Identity and Relative Income within Households. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 130(2): 571–614.

Bursztyn, L., González, A. L. & Yanagizawa-Drott, D. 2018. Misperceived Social Norms: Female Labor Force Participation in Saudi Arabia. Technical report, National Bureau of Economic Research.

Cohen, S., Kamarck, T. & Mermelstein, R. 1983. A Global Measure of Perceived Stress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 24(4): 385–396.

Dhar, D., Jain, T. & Jayachandran, S. 2018. Reshaping Adolescents' Gender Attitudes: Evidence from a School-Based Experiment in India. Technical report, National Bureau of Economic Research.

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J. & Griffin, S. 1985. The Satisfaction with Life Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49(1): 71–75.

DIME-OEV 2021. Impact Evaluation of Cash-Based Transfers on Gender Equality in El Salvador: An Inception Report. Technical report, World Bank Group World Food Programme.

Haushofer, J., Ringdal, C., Shapiro, J. P. & Wang, X. Y. 2019. Income Changes and Intimate Partner Violence: Evidence from Unconditional Cash Transfers in Kenya. Working Paper 25627, National Bureau of Economic Research.

Hochschild, A. & Machung, A. 2012. *The Second Shift: Working Families and the Revolution at Home*. New York, Penguin.

Jayachandran, S. 2015. The Roots of Gender Inequality in Developing Countries. *Annual Review of Economics*, 7(1):63–88.

Lundberg, S. & Pollak, R. A. 1993. Separate Spheres Bargaining and the Marriage Market. *Journal of Political Economy*, 101(6): 988–1010.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psychological monographs: General and applied, 80(1), 1.

World Bank 2020. Labor Force Participation Rate, Female (% of Female Population Ages 15+) (modeled ILO estimate). https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.FE. ZS. (accessed on 20 August 2021)

World Food Programme 2021. Prioritizing Women, White Paper, WFP – CBT Division

Appendix

Figure 12: Food consumption score

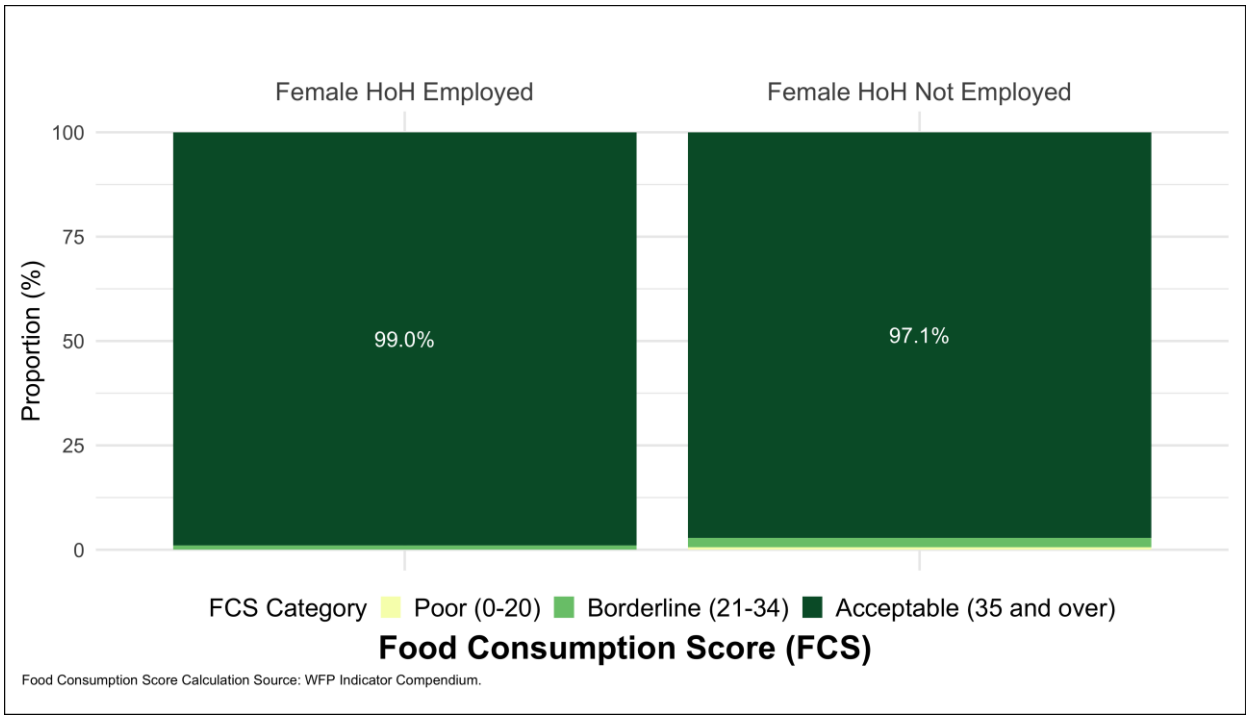


Table 17: Coping strategy classification

Strategy	Classification
Stopped paying bills and basic services	Neutral
Sold household assets or goods Purchased food on credit or borrowed food Spent savings Borrowed money	Stress
Sold productive assets or means of transport Lessened household expenditures Looked for other sources of income	Crisis
Withdrew children from school Sold a house or land Begged One or more members of the household migrated	Emergency

Table 18: Indicators and questions for agency, attitudes and perception of norms

Indicator	Question
Agency	
Agency over Women's Time Use	Who makes decisions about women's time spent...?
Agency over Men's Time Use	Who makes decisions about men's time spent...?
Agency over Consumption	Who makes decisions about purchases for...?
Attitudes	
Women's Attitudes towards Time Use	Who does she think should spend more time...?
Men's Attitudes towards Time Use	Who does he think should spend more time...?
Women's Attitudes towards Agency over Women's Time Use	Who does she think should make decisions about women's time spent...?
Men's Attitudes towards Agency over Women's Time Use	Who does he think should make decisions about women's time spent...?
Perception of Norms	
Women's Perception of Norms of Time Use	Who does she think spends more time... in her community?
Women's Perception of Norms of Agency over Women's Time Use	Who does she think makes decisions about women's time spent... in her community?
Women's Perception of Norms of Attitudes towards Time Use	Who does she think people in her community think should spend more time...?
Women's Perception of Norms of Attitudes towards Agency over Women's Time Use	Who does she think people in her community think should make decisions about women's time spent...?

Figure 13: Attitudes and perceptions of norms – time use

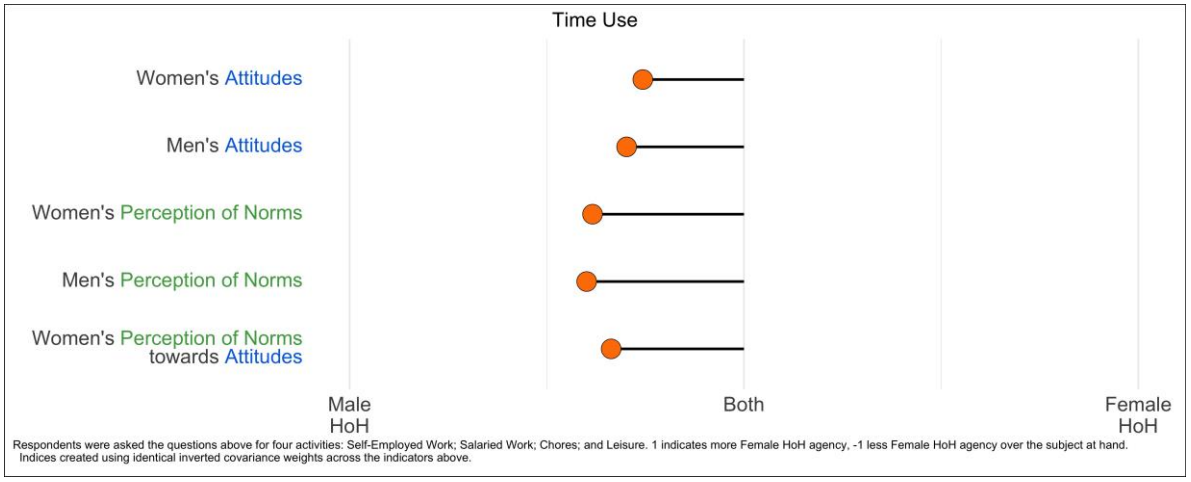


Figure 14: Attitudes and perceptions of norms – agency over women's time use

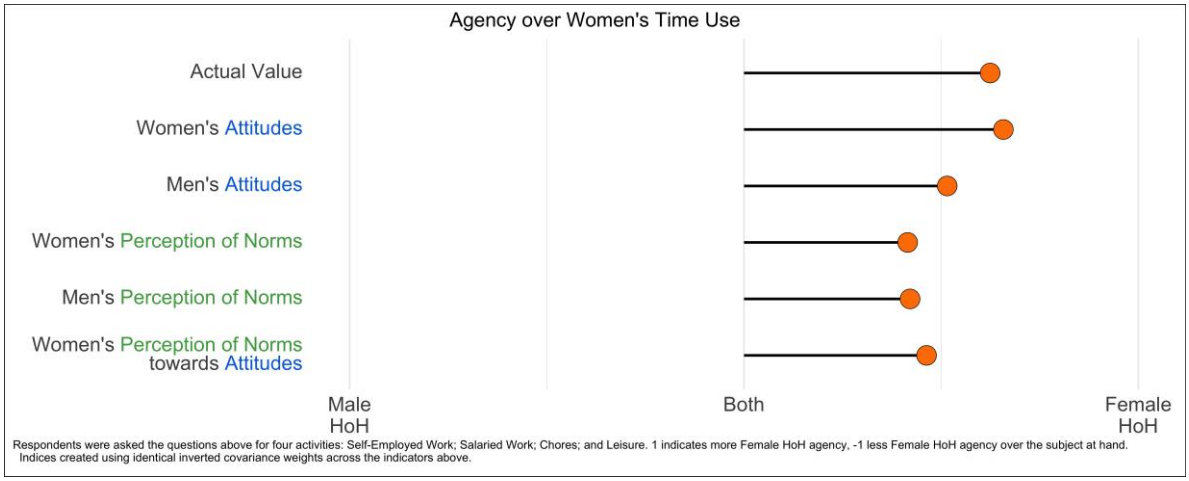


Figure 15: Attitudes and perceptions of norms – agency over men's time use

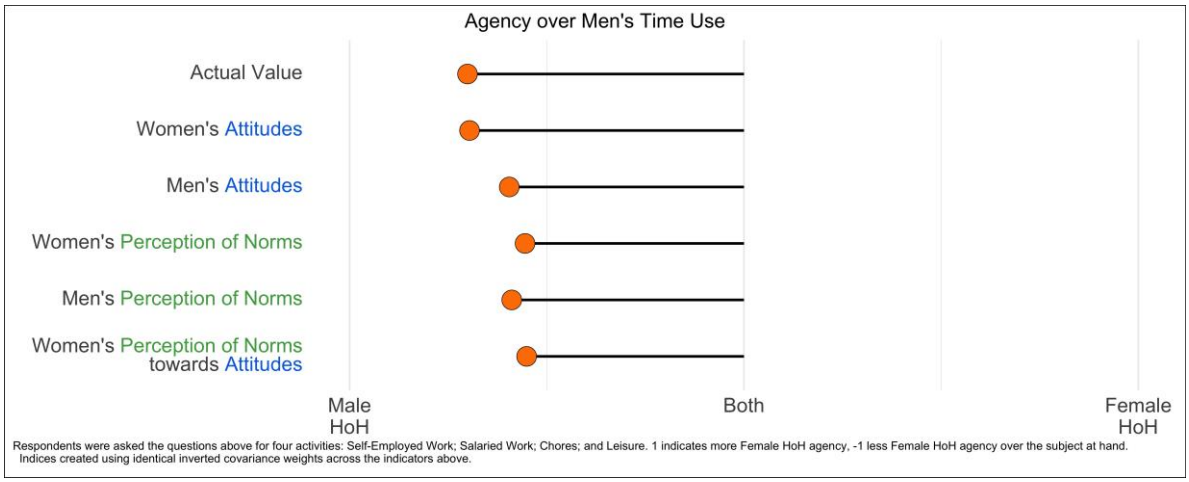


Figure 16: Attitudes and perceptions of norms – household consumption

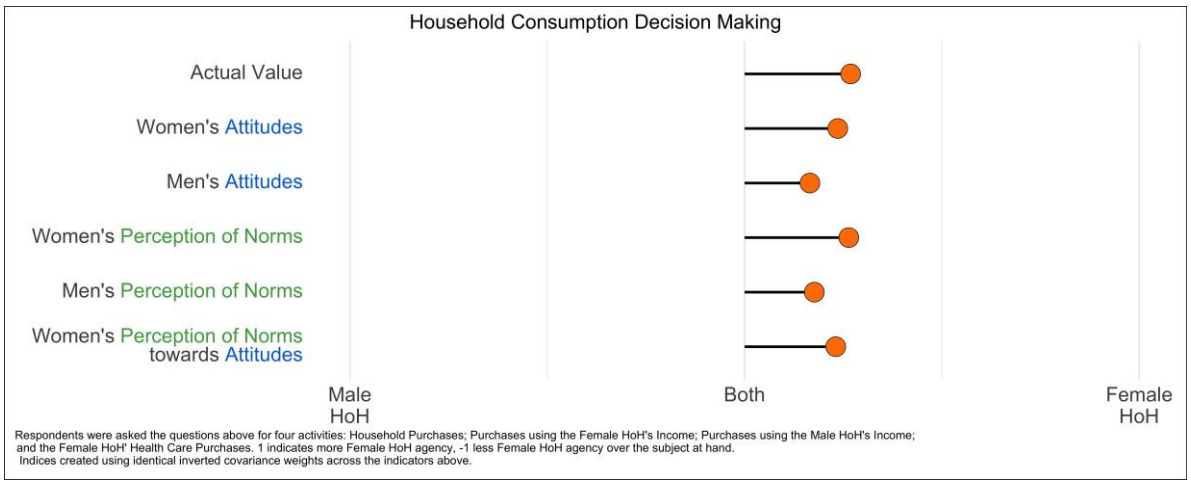
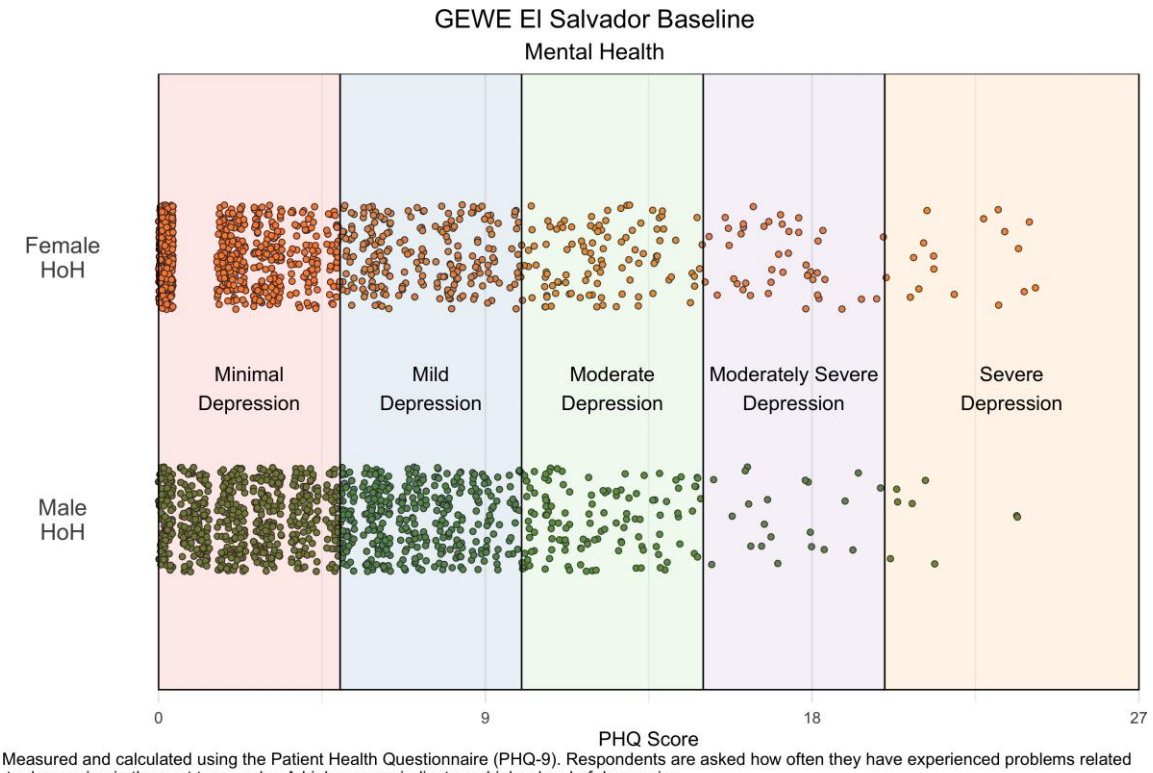
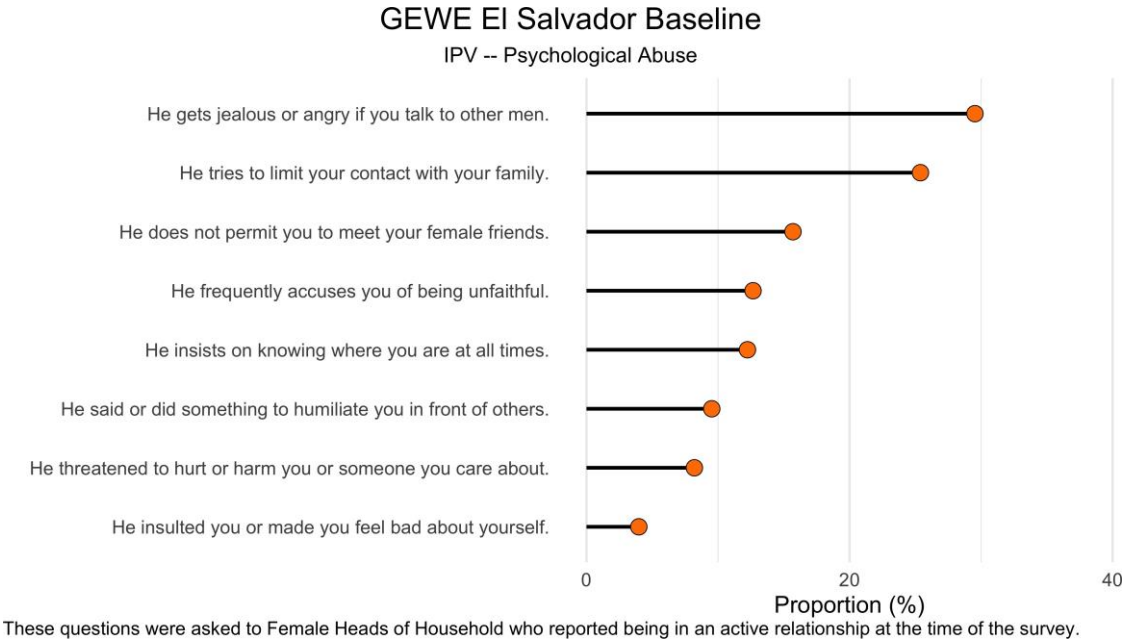


Figure 17: Mental health



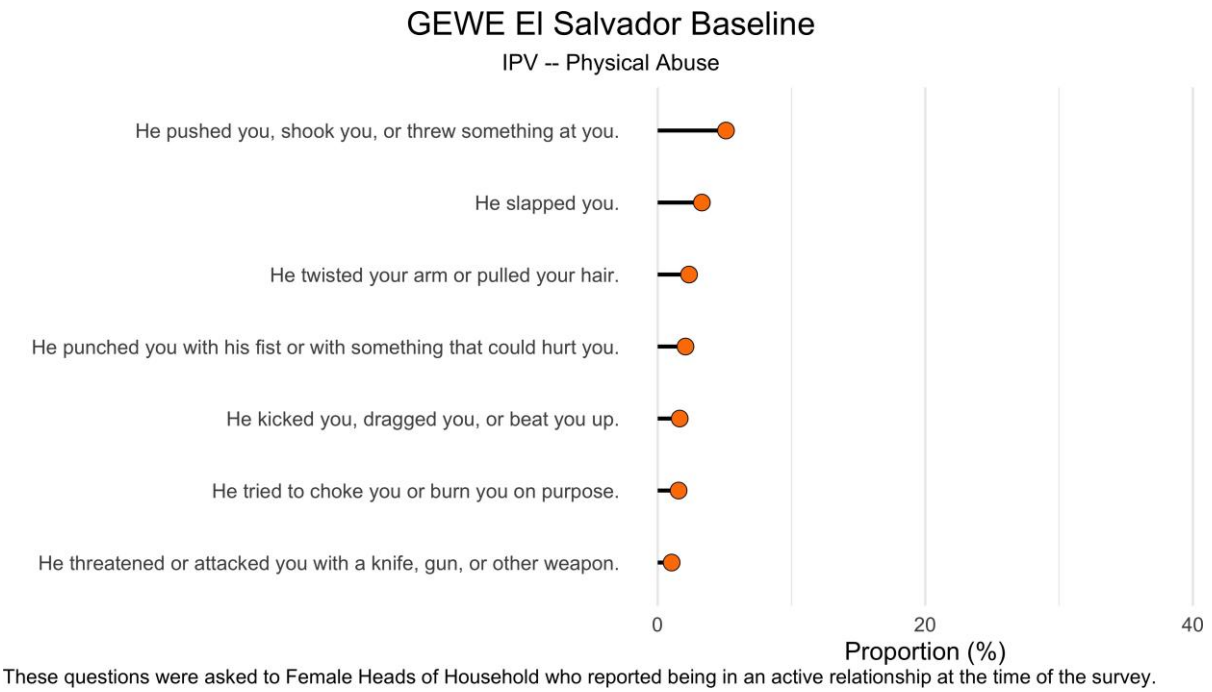
Measured and calculated using the Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9). Respondents are asked how often they have experienced problems related to depression in the past two weeks. A higher score indicates a higher level of depression.

Figure 18: IPV – psychological abuse



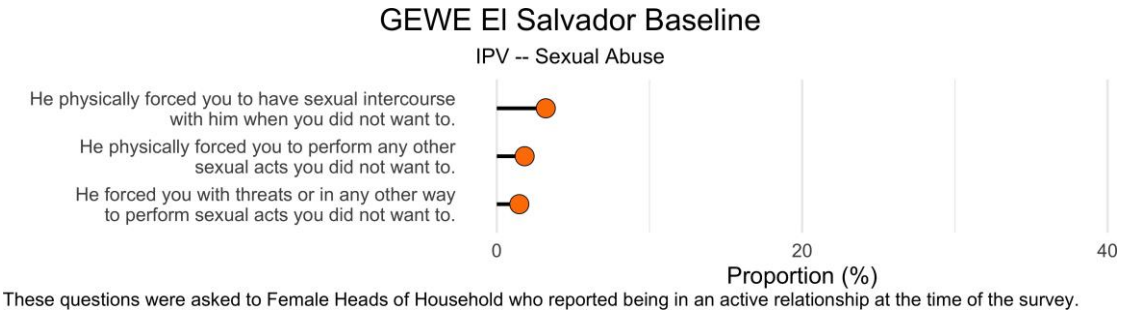
These questions were asked to Female Heads of Household who reported being in an active relationship at the time of the survey.

Figure 19: IPV – physical abuse



These questions were asked to Female Heads of Household who reported being in an active relationship at the time of the survey.

Figure 20: IPV – sexual abuse



These questions were asked to Female Heads of Household who reported being in an active relationship at the time of the survey.

Acronyms

CBT&G	Cash-Based Transfers & Gender Window
CO	Country Office
CSP	Country Strategic Plan
DIME	Development Impact Evaluation
FCS	Food Consumption Score
FFA	Food Assistance For Assets
GBV–IPV	Gender-based violence – intimate partner violence
GEN	Gender Office
GEWE	Gender Equality and Women Empowerment
HoH	Head of the Household
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
LCS	livelihood-based coping strategy
OEV	Office of Evaluation
PHQ	Patient Health Questionnaire
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
RCT	Randomized Control Trial
WFP	World Food Programme

Office of Evaluation

World Food Programme

Via Cesare Giulio Viola 68/70
00148 Rome, Italy
T +39 06 65131 **wfp.org**